

**THE ROLE OF WATER VAPOR RADIOMETERS FOR IN-FLIGHT
CALIBRATION OF THE TOPEX MICROWAVE RADIOMETER**

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ABSTRACT

First year results are presented for the in-flight calibration and performance evaluation of the TOPEX Microwave Radiometer (TMR), based on overflight comparisons with ground-based water vapor radiometer (WVR) data. Comparisons are made in terms of both TMR brightness temperatures and the retrieved range correction due to Tropospheric water vapor (path delay).

Comparisons of TMR brightness temperature measurements with predictions based on WVR data and a calm sea flux model provided early recognition of TMR pm-night calibration errors which were not apparent based on ground truth path delay comparisons. Later comparisons, using the final TMR calibration algorithms, are used to constrain the model for the calm sea surface nadir emissivity. The results suggest that the 18-37 GHz calm sea flux is enhanced 1-2 K relative to the predictions of a Fresnel model for a plane surface.

Comparisons in the path delay domain illustrate the advantages of using time and space coincident ground measurements for in-flight calibration and performance monitoring, of satellite radiometer measurements. The results demonstrate that elimination of temporal and spatial decorrelation errors reduces path delay comparison residuals to less than 1 cm, in contrast to the 3 cm scatter produced by the customary radiosonde comparisons.

Keywords: TOPEX Microwave Radiometer, water vapor radiometer, wet troposphere range correction, path delay, in-flight calibration, brightness temperature

1. introduction

Altimetry measurements of sea level require a number of corrections for atmosphere-induced time delays, one of which is that caused by tropospheric water vapor and cloud liquid. This delay, expressed as a range correction (hereafter referred to as path delay), is highly variable in time and space, ranging from ~ 3 cm for cold, dry conditions to 45 cm for warm, humid conditions. The TOPEX Microwave Radiometer (TMR) was included in the TOPEX/Poseidon altimetry mission to provide the path delay correction to an accuracy of 1.2 cm (Carlisle et al., 1991). The TMR consists of three nadir-viewing channels (18, 21, and 37 GHz) which measure the emission (brightness temperature) from the atmosphere and sea surface. The 21 GHz channel, operating near the peak of the 22.235 GHz water vapor absorption resonance, is the primary vapor sensing channel. The 37 GHz channel is most sensitive to liquid water and provides a measurement used to separate the liquid and vapor contributions in the presence of clouds. The 18 GHz channel provides a correction for variability in the sea surface background flux due mainly to the effects of wind on the surface emissivity. Due to the frequency proximity of the 18 and 21 GHz channels, they respond nearly equally to variations in the sea surface flux. Thus, variations in atmospheric water vapor abundance, and the related path delay, are strongly correlated with the brightness temperature difference

between the 21 and 18 GHz measurements. For further details on the interpretation of the TMR measurements in terms of path delay (the "retrieval algorithm"), see Keihm et al. (1993a).

In-flight calibration of the TMR antenna temperature measurements is performed by alternately switching the radiometer input between the main antenna, a smaller antenna pointed into cold space, or to an internal matched load. The antenna temperature calibration equations take into account hardware component losses and their temperature dependencies, which were determined prior to launch in a series of thermal vacuum (T/V) tests (Ruf et al., 1993a). Error sources associated with the pre-launch antenna temperature algorithm include errors in the extrapolation from T/V simulated cold space at ~ 77 K to in-flight cold space at ~ 2.7 K, high order instrument non-linearities not properly modelled by the quadratic calibration algorithm, and small measurement errors in the T/V tests.

The conversion of antenna temperatures to nadir brightness temperatures requires a second calibration algorithm which takes into account side lobe contributions to the measured signals (Janssen et al., 1993). Antenna range measurements, conducted prior to launch, were used to determine beam pattern parameters which were included in the antenna pattern correction (APC) algorithm. Error sources associated with the APC include errors in the antenna range measurements and uncertainties in the brightness temperatures viewed by the on-earth side lobes. An additional potential source of APC algorithm error was a last minute thermal blanketing modification to the antenna, made prior to launch but after the antenna range measurements were completed (Ruf et al., 1993b).

In-flight testing of the TMR calibration algorithms was carried out during the six month verification phase following launch. Various sources of "ground truth", including radiosondes, water vapor radiometers (WVRs), and climatological models, were compared with overflown TMR measurements in both the brightness temperature and retrieved path delay domains. Similar to verification studies for previously flown water vapor microwave sensors (Lopes, 1982; Alishouse et al., 1990), radiosondes were used as the primary calibration standard in the integrated water vapor (path delay) domain (Ruf et al., 1993b). Twenty-three island radiosonde launch sites, located within 50 km of the TOPEX/Poseidon ground track, were used as the comparison data base. Radiosondes offer three primary advantages for calibration of water vapor-related satellite measurements: no-cost availability, abundance of data, and direct measurement of the vapor and temperature profiles which determine the path delay. The primary disadvantages are large temporal and spatial decorrelations relative to the TMR measurements and errors in the radiosonde relative humidity measurements, especially in the presence of clouds or very dry conditions (Schwartz and Doswell, 1991). In addition, comparisons in the path delay domain alone do not reveal the source(s) of in-flight calibration errors. As demonstrated by the early TMR performance, and described in this paper, satisfactory comparisons can be obtained in the path delay domain while large, but compensating, errors are present in the satellite brightness temperature measurements.

Ground-based WVRs are especially useful for satellite microwave sensor calibration in the brightness temperature domain, WVRs directly measure the atmospheric emissions which are the

main source of variability in the open ocean satellite microwave measurements. To predict TMR brightness temperatures from the WVR measurements, a sea surface flux model is required to account for the background contributions to the nadir-viewing measurements. For calm conditions this model is well constrained by knowledge of the sea surface temperature within an accuracy of a few degrees Kelvin. In fact, results of the final TMR algorithm adjustments suggest that the TMR operational brightness temperature accuracies are sufficient to refine the calm ocean model flux levels at the TMR frequencies to accuracies of 1-2 K.

In this paper the role of WVRs in the TMR in-flight calibration is emphasized. In section II we describe the deployment and operational characteristics of the WVRs used in the TMR verification processing. Section III presents results of TMR-WVR comparisons in the brightness temperature domain. Data which led to the early detection of large TMR antenna calibration errors is shown, followed by the results of the first year of comparison data using the final TMR calibration algorithms. In this section evidence is presented suggesting that the actual calm sea flux is enhanced ~2 K above the Fresnel predictions for a flat surface. Section IV presents TMR-WVR comparisons in the path delay domain based on the final TMR algorithms and the first year of data. In section V the WVR comparison results are summarized and lessons learned regarding the utilization of WVRs for satellite instrument calibration are discussed.

II. WVR Deployment and Operation

For the purposes of validation of the altimeter and TMR performance, WVRs were deployed prior to cycle 1 measurements, and have continued operation, at Lampedusa island (35.57N, 12.57E), in the Mediterranean Sea, and the Tarvest oil platform (34.47N, 120.68W), 11 km from the California coastline near Santa Barbara. These were the primary verification sites for the Poseidon (CNES) and TOPEX (NASA) altimeters respectively. The verification site WVRs are identical three-frequency L-units, built at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, with channels at 20.7, 22.2, and 31.4 GHz (Keihm et al., 1993b). In addition, a J/J₁ L-unit WVR, operating at 20.7 and 31.4 GHz, was deployed for ~one month periods at the island sites of Chichima, Japan (27.08N, 142.18E) during September, 1992, and Norfolk, Australia (29.03S, 167.93E) from October 15-November 15, 1992. These sites were chosen for their proximity to the TOPEX/Poseidon groundtrack and to provide high (Chichima) and low (Norfolk) end humidity condition comparisons early in the verification phase. Minimum groundtrack separations at the four WVR sites are 21 km at Lampedusa, 0 km at Tarvest (direct overflight), 32 km at Chichima, and 29 km at Norfolk.

At all sites the WVRs operated in a continuous tipping, curve mode, monitoring instrument gain and zenith sky brightness temperature variations at a 1.5 minute sampling rate. In this mode absolute brightness temperature accuracies of 0.5 K have been demonstrated for the J and L-unit radiometers (Keihm, 1991). The zenith measurements were converted to integrated vapor abundance and path delay using statistical retrievals based on correlations with computed brightness temperatures from radiosonde data archives. The uncertainty in WVR-retrieved path delay is less than 0.3 cm due to

instrument effects alone. The largest error in the path delay retrieval is due to a $\sim 5\text{-}100/0$ uncertainty in the line strength of the vapor absorption model required to convert the measured brightness temperatures to vapor abundance (path delay). Since the same model of vapor absorption was used in both the TMR and WVR path delay retrieval algorithms, this error is transparent for TMR-WVR comparisons in the path delay domain.

In the brightness temperature domain, comparisons of TMR with WVR predictions required a conversion of the WVR measurements to the TMR frequencies and a model for the sea surface flux contribution to the brightness temperature. The frequency conversion produces negligible error because the vapor absorption model line shape is well constrained (Hill, 1986; Keilm, 1992). For the sea surface flux component, measured sea surface temperatures were multiplied by temperature-dependent Fresnel emissivities calculated from the Klein and Swift (1977) formulation for ocean dielectric properties. For the brightness temperature domain comparisons, only calm sea TMR data, as determined from the TMR wind speed algorithm (Keilm et al., 1993a), were used to minimize emissivity variations due to wind-generated foam and roughness. The complete algorithm used to convert WVR brightness temperatures to predicted TMR brightness temperatures is presented by Ruf et al. (1993b).

Through August, 1993, ~100 overflight comparisons of the WVR sites have been obtained, including twelve from the temporary stations at Chichi Jima and Norfolk. At Lampedusa, where both ascending and descending ground tracks lie within 50 km of the site, 55 TMR-WVR comparisons were obtained over the first year of operation. No Lampedusa WVR data was obtained over a six week interval at the end of 1992 due to a hardware failure incurred during a severe electrical storm. At the Harvest oil platform numerous WVR hardware failures occurred, resulting in the loss of 12 of the first 40 cycles of overpass comparison data. These failures can be attributed to the harsh environmental conditions at Harvest. In addition to the salt sea air effects, the Harvest WVR is located less than four meters from a helicopter landing pad and is subject to intense vibrations four times daily during the helicopter landings and takeoffs.

III. Results of TMR-WVR Brightness Temperature Comparisons

Early detection of TMR brightness temperature offsets

Within six weeks post-launch, prior to the completion of orbit maneuvers and the onset of cycle 1 data, Harvest and Lampedusa overflight comparisons of TMR and WVR-predicted brightness temperatures revealed 6-12 K offsets, with the TMR low in all channels (Figure 1, open squares). The problem was not apparent in the path delay domain comparisons because the offsets produced largely compensating effects in the path delay retrieval algorithm. (Recall that the TMR-derived retrievals are strongly correlated with the 21 minus 18 GHz brightness temperature differences.) To determine the source of the large offsets, a number of possible explanations were considered, including errors in the APC algorithm, errors in our assumed model of sea surface flux, and errors in the antenna temperature calibration. After eliminating the APC and surface flux model

uncertainties as insufficient to produce the observed offsets, we discovered that part of the pre-launch T/V data, used to calibrate the TMR sensitivity to the cold sky brightness temperature, was invalid due to large temperature gradients present in the T/V cold sky target. The error was corrected by identifying other T/V data taken when the cold sky target temperature was stable. The resultant revised antenna temperature calibration algorithm essentially removed all of the biases relative to the WVR comparison data (cross data of Figure 1).

The results shown in Figure 1, based on the revised antenna temperature algorithm, do not represent the final TMR brightness temperature calibration. Smaller adjustments were later required based primarily on the TMR-radiosonde comparisons in the path delay domain. These comparisons revealed a scale error of $\sim 10\%$, after the antenna temperature calibration revision, with the TMR-derived path delays increasingly low relative to the radiosonde measurements for moderate to high vapor conditions. The scale error was corrected by $\sim 5\%$ refinements to both the APC algorithm and the vapor absorption model line strength used in the path delay retrieval algorithm. This division was based on a number of considerations. First, the TMR-WVR path delay comparisons were consistent with a smaller scale error, -5% although the number and range of the early comparisons were insufficient to constrain the scale error by better than a factor of two. This result suggested that at least part of the scale error was due to instrument calibration effects, since the TMR-WVR path delay comparisons are transparent to absorption model errors. Second, comparisons of the TMR brightness temperatures with data from the Special Sensor Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) radiometer over the Amazon rain forest revealed biases of 6-9 K (TMR low) for the highest brightness temperatures measured, where gain errors have the largest effect. These high end offsets were corrected by gain adjustments in the APC algorithm of $\sim 50\%$ in the three TMR channels, performed in such a way as to correct \sim half of the observed path delay scale error. The remaining scale error was eliminated by the 50% line strength reduction in the path delay retrieval algorithm's vapor absorption model. For a more detailed discussion of the final TMR algorithm modifications, see Ruf et al. (1993b).

TMR-WVR brightness temperature comparisons using the final TMR calibration algorithms

The final TMR instrument gain adjustments have been used to recompute the TMR-measured versus WVR-predicted brightness temperature comparisons over the first full year of operation. The results, shown in figures 2-4 for the Harvest, Lampedusa, and Norfolk sites, include only overpasses characterized by low wind speeds and cloud free conditions. The Chichi Jima results are not shown because only two of the overpasses satisfied the clear, calm criteria.

The figures clearly illustrate that the WVR predictions of TMR brightness temperatures are systematically low for all three TMR channels. The larger offsets seen at 1 Harvest and Lampedusa, relative to Norfolk, are primarily due to the effects of land mass contamination in the main beam (defined below) and side lobes of the TMR data at the primary verification sites. Norfolk Island is located ~ 1200 km from the eastern coast of Australia, with no closer large land masses. Thus, no significant land enhancements in the TMR main beam or on-earth side lobes is expected for Norfolk overpasses. At 1 Harvest, however, a significant fraction of the main beam and \sim half of the on-earth

side lobes view California and the western U.S. At Lampedusa, a smaller fraction of the main beam views Tunisia, but ~80% of the on-earth side lobes view the combined land masses of southern Europe, northern Africa, and southwestern Asia. This land contamination causes a significant enhancement in the measured TMR antenna temperatures. The brightness temperatures are similarly enhanced since the APC algorithm is designed for open ocean measurements.

To assess the land contamination effects at Harvest and Lampedusa, the pre-launch antenna pattern measurements were convolved with map-determined land mass fractions and the expected brightness temperature difference between land and water.

$$\Delta T_a = \int_0^{\theta_1} P(\theta) \cdot f(\theta) \cdot \Delta T_b(\theta) \cdot d\theta \quad (1)$$

where ΔT_a equals the antenna temperature enhancement relative to an open-ocean measurement, θ equals the polar angle measured from satellite nadir, $P(\theta) \cdot d\theta$ equals the fractional beam power in the annulus from θ to $\theta + d\theta$, $f(\theta)$ equals the land fraction at θ , and $\Delta T_b(\theta)$ equals the brightness temperature enhancement of land relative to water at θ . In Equation (1) a circular symmetric beam is assumed and $\theta_1 = 55^\circ$ is the limit of the on-earth side lobes.

Similar to the APC algorithm (Janssen et al., 1993), the integral in Equation (1) can be divided into a main beam ($0 < \theta < 10^\circ$) and the on-earth side lobes ($10^\circ < \theta < 55^\circ$). Over the main beam equation (1) is solved numerically, dividing the integral into 100 increments of 0.1° , 1 degrees in θ , computing $f(\theta)$ from maps and the groundtrack coordinates at the point of comparison, and using a constant value of $\Delta T_b(\theta)$ equal to 260 minus the site overpass average TMR main beam brightness temperature, T_{avg} . (For all θ we assume a land brightness temperature of 260 K.) Over the on-earth side lobes ($10^\circ < \theta < 55^\circ$), the differential beam power is slowly varying and the integral can be evaluated to sufficient accuracy by using averaged quantities, yielding

$$\int_{10}^{55} P(\theta) \cdot f(\theta) \cdot \Delta T_b(\theta) \cdot d\theta = b \cdot F_{10-55} \cdot (260 - T_c) \quad (2)$$

where b equals the fractional beam power from $10^\circ < \theta < 55^\circ$, F_{10-55} equals the average land fraction from $10^\circ < \theta < 55^\circ$, and T_c equals the latitude-dependent average open-ocean on-earth brightness temperature. Values of the above parameters used to compute land contamination effects at Harvest and Lampedusa are given in Table 1. Cumulative beam power fractions and land fractions in the main beam are shown in Figures 5 and 6. Note that the ground track position used for the Harvest comparisons is 40 km ($\theta \sim 1.7$ degrees) from the coastline.

The computed results for the main beam, on-earth side lobe, and total land contamination effects at Harvest and Lampedusa are shown in Table 2. The largest effects are in the 18 and 21 GHz channels at Harvest for which the largest fraction of the main beam covers land. At Lampedusa,

Lampedusa, which lies ~ 140 km from Tunisia, the perturbation is dominated by the on-earth side lobe effects and the fact that ~ 80% of the 10-55 degree beam views land,

The land-corrected TMR brightness temperature "offsets", relative to the WVR predictions at the overpass sites, are obtained by subtracting the total land effects in "Table 2 from the measured offsets shown in figures 2 and 3. The results are given in "Table 3, including the Norfolk comparison data for which no land correction was applied. (Note that the relatively high beam efficiencies allow us to assume that the computed land effects are equivalent for antenna and brightness temperatures.) The important result is an apparent 1-2 K enhancement relative to the WVR predictions which can be attributed to a slightly higher calm sea surface flux than that predicted for a plane layer with the Klein-Swift dielectric properties. Evidence exists that either small scale roughness (Gaydanskiy et al., 1988) or uncertainties in the Klein-Swift dielectric property model above 10 GHz (Wentz, 1992) could account for the measured offsets,

The reliability of the 1-2 K enhancement result depends primarily on the uncertainties of the final TMR calibration algorithms. Based on an evaluation of the uncertainties of all constraints which determined the final calibration, an absolute TMR brightness temperature accuracy of 1.5 K is estimated (Ruf et al., 1993b). The uncertainty of the Harvest and Lampedusa land contamination corrections is estimated to be $< 20\%$ of the computed values based on uncertainties in the land fraction and land temperature estimates. The largest uncertainties are for the 18 and 21 GHz channels at Harvest where the largest fractions of the main beam view land. The reason why the highest residual offsets at all three TMR frequencies occur at the Lampedusa site is not clear. One possible explanation is an error in the on-earth side lobe fractions which would affect the Lampedusa land correction -- twice as strongly as at Harvest. It is noteworthy that the results from Norfolk island, where land contamination effects are negligible, support a 2 K enhancement.

IV. Results of TMR-WVR Path Delay Comparisons

The first full year of TMR-WVR overpass path delay retrieval comparisons are shown in Figures 7 (Harvest), 8 (Lampedusa), and 9 (Norfolk and Chichilima). The final TMR calibration algorithms have been used, and the WVR retrieval algorithms have been modified to reflect the 5% decrease in the vapor absorption model line strength incorporated into the TMR algorithm. With the exception of two unexplained outliers at Harvest, all data is shown, including, high wind and cloudy cases. Most of the biases seen at Harvest and Lampedusa can be explained by the land contaminant ion effects, which have not been removed from the TMR data for these comparisons. The largest bias, ~ 1 cm at Lampedusa, is consistent with the 0.9 K relative offset (Figures 3a, 3b) between the 21 and 18 GHz channels at Lampedusa. It is noteworthy that, when the land contamination corrections are applied at Harvest and Lampedusa, the rms residuals at all sites are less than 1 cm of path delay difference, well within the mission specification accuracy of 1.2 cm.

The scatter at all sites is remarkably low, especially when the effects of WVR and spatial decorrelation errors are taken into account. This result illustrates an important advantage of

utilizing WVRs for the in-flight calibration of vapor sensing radiometers. An island-deployed WVR, located on or near the satellite groundtrack, eliminates almost all of the decorrelation errors inherent to radiosonde-satellite comparisons. By contrast, the TMR-radiosonde path delay comparisons, used to fine tune the final TMR algorithms, were characterized by rms residual differences of ~ 3 cm, almost all of which could be attributed to spatial and temporal decorrelations between the vapor burdens sensed by the TMR and radiosondes (Ruf et al., 1993b).

The mean slope of the scatter plot for Lampedusa (Figure 8), suggests the presence of a small residual scale error in the final TMR algorithm path delay retrievals. A similar finding has been reported based on global TMR comparisons with the European Center for Medium range Weather Forecasting (ECMWF) climatological model (Stum, 1993). The ECMWF model, based largely on the global interpolation of surface and radiosonde data, successfully predicts global-scale features of the path delay variations, but often produces 100-500 km errors in the positioning of sharp latitude-dependent features (Stum, 1993). In contrast, the final-algorithm TMR comparisons with individual near-groundtrack radiosonde measurements yield no scale error in the path delay domain (Ruf et al., 1993b). The zero scale error result is also supported by comparisons of the TMR and IRS-1 satellite radiometer path delay retrievals in the vicinity of crossover points (Stum, 1993). Based on the results of the more direct comparisons, we believe that the apparent scale error seen in the Lampedusa TMR-WVR path delay comparisons is most likely due to a small residual "gain" error associated with the uncertainties of the land contamination effect.

V. Summary and Discussion

Ground-based water vapor radiometers provided valuable comparison data for the in-flight calibration and performance assessment of the TOP11X Microwave Radiometer. WVR-based predictions of TMR brightness temperatures at the Larvest and Lampedusa verification sites provided early recognition of large TMR offsets and constrained the resultant antenna temperature calibration algorithm correction. Later TMR-WVR comparisons, using the final TMR calibration algorithms and the first year of calm sea data, demonstrated the importance of land contamination effects at the Larvest and Lampedusa verification sites. After application of corrections for the land effects, the TMR vs. WVR-predicted brightness temperature comparisons indicated average offsets of 1-2 K (TMR high), indicative of a correction to be applied to the Fresnel model of the calm sea surface emissivity.

Comparisons of TMR and WVR path delay retrievals at four ground sites demonstrated the importance of co-location and time synchronization for water vapor-related data. Spatial and temporal decorrelations inherent to the traditional radiosonde site path delay comparisons produce ~ 3 cm of rms residual for average space and time separations of 100 km and 3 hours (Ruf et al., 1993b). Uncertainties in the evaluation of the decorrelation contribution to the large radiosonde comparison scatter makes it difficult to assess the satellite radiometer path delay performance at the 1 cm level. In contrast, the time-synchronized and nearly co-located WVR data yielded TMR comparison residuals < 1 cm after land contamination corrections were applied.

We are not suggesting that WVRs should replace radiosondes as the primary ground truth data base for in flight calibration of satellite radiometers. In many ways, the WVR and radiosonde data are complimentary. The radiosonde stations rapidly provide a large global data base which constrains biases and scale errors in the water vapor-related satellite radiometer retrievals. For vapor-induced path delay, the radiosonde measurements are direct, not requiring a model-dependent conversion from measured brightness temperatures. WVRs are most useful for the satellite radiometer brightness temperature calibration and instrument performance monitoring. The direct measurement of sky brightness temperatures at or near the satellite radiometer frequencies provides an accurate (0.5 K) constraint on the highly variable atmospheric contributions to the downward-viewing instrument. The addition of a well-constrained calm sea surface flux component to the WVR measurements then allows direct comparisons in the brightness temperature domain, yielding satellite radiometer calibration accuracies at the 1 K level.

For future altimetry satellite missions which include a microwave radiometer to provide the tropospheric range correction, it is recommended that one WVR be included to supplement the standard global radiosonde comparisons in the in-flight verification plan. The ideal deployment location would be a small island radiosonde station, at least 500 km from the nearest large land mass, and within 50 km of a mid-latitude node crossing position of the satellite ground track. As demonstrated by the WVR performance at Lampedusa, the instrument could operate in an unattended mode for a year or more, with data transfer via modem or monthly downloading by radiosonde station personnel. The required on-site manpower support is minimal, consisting mainly of pre-overflight checks which include cleaning of the WVR radome and reflector surfaces. Deployment at a radiosonde weather station would also provide useful support data such as cloud cover, wind speed, and comparisons to monitor the WVR performance.

Other desirable characteristics of the deployment site would include a high percentage of low wind and cloud-free conditions and large seasonal variations in vapor abundance. Calm and clear conditions minimize comparison uncertainties associated with wind-induced emissivity variations and horizontal variations in the cloud effects. The seasonal variations determine the dynamic range over which the instrument calibration and retrieval performance can be monitored. Radiosonde data statistics from candidate island weather stations would be analyzed to find a site which best satisfies the above criteria.

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Table 1. Parameter Values Used to Compute Land Contamination Effects at Harvest and Lampedusa

Parameter	Harvest	Lampedusa
b(18): 18 GHz On-Earth Beam Fraction	0.0278	0.0278
b(21): 21 GHz On-Earth Beam Fraction	0.0247	0.0247
b(37): 37 GHz On-Earth Beam Fraction	0.0215	0.0215
$T_c(18)$: 18 GHz open-ocean On-Earth T_b (K)	170	170
$T_c(21)$: 21 GHz open-ocean On-Earth T_b (K)	170	170
$T_c(37)$: 37 GHz open-ocean On-Earth T_b (K)	169	169
$T_{avg}(18)$: 18 GHz Average Main Beam T_b (K)	127	131
$T_{avg}(21)$: 21 GHz Average Main Beam T_b (K)	146	150
$T_{avg}(37)$: 37 GHz Average Main Beam T_b (K)	156	156
F_{10-55} : Land Fraction, On-Earth Side Lobes	0.48	0.80

Table 2. TMR Land Contamination Effects on TMR Brightness Temperatures at Harvest and Lampedusa

TMR Channel	-----Harvest-----			-----Lampedusa-----		
	Main Beam	On-earth side lobes	Total	Main Beam	On-earth side lobes	Total
18 GHz	2.5 K	1.2 K	3.7 K	0.2 K	2.0 K	2.2 K
21 GHz	1.8	1.1	2.9	0.2	1.8	2.0
37 GHz	0.8	0.9	1.7	0.2	1.5	1.7

Table 3. Net Brightness Temperature offsets: Corrected TMR minus WVR-predicted

TMR Channel	Harvest	1.ampedusa	Norfolk
18 GHz	0.2 K	1.9 K	1.4 K
21 GHz	1.1	3.0	1.4
37 GHz	1.7	2.1	1.9

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Cycle 1 comparisons of measured and WVR-predicted TMR brightness temperatures at the 1 larvest and Lampedusa verification sites. The 6-12 K TMR offsets were effectively removed when post-launch corrections to the antenna temperature calibration algorithm were applied. The final modifications to the TMR antenna pattern algorithm have not yet been implemented.

Figure 2. Harvest overpass comparisons of measured and WVR-predicted TMR brightness temperatures for clear, calm conditions through cycle 40. The final TMR calibration algorithms have been utilized, but no corrections for land contamination have been applied.

Figure 3. Same as Figure 2, but for Lampedusa overpass data.

Figure 4. Same as Figure 2, but for Norfolk overpass data.

Figure 5. Cumulative TMR beam power as a function of polar angle as determined from pre-launch antenna pattern measurements. Within the main beam (0-10 degrees), each degree of polar angle corresponds to ~23.3 km along the earth's surface.

Figure 6. Land fractions within the TMR main beam vs. polar angle at the Harvest and Lampedusa verification sites. At 1 larvest the TMR groundtrack location for comparisons with the WVR data is chosen to be 40 km from the California coastline (~30 km from the 1 larvest platform),

Figure 7. 1 larvest overpass comparisons of TMR-retrieved and WVR-retrieved path delay for data through cycle 40, including cloudy and windy cases. The final TMR calibration algorithms have been utilized, but no land correction applied.

Figure 8. Same as Figure 7, but for Lampedusa overpass data. The much greater number of comparison data (relative to 1 larvest) is due to the occurrence of two near overpasses for each cycle at the node-crossing Lampedusa site,

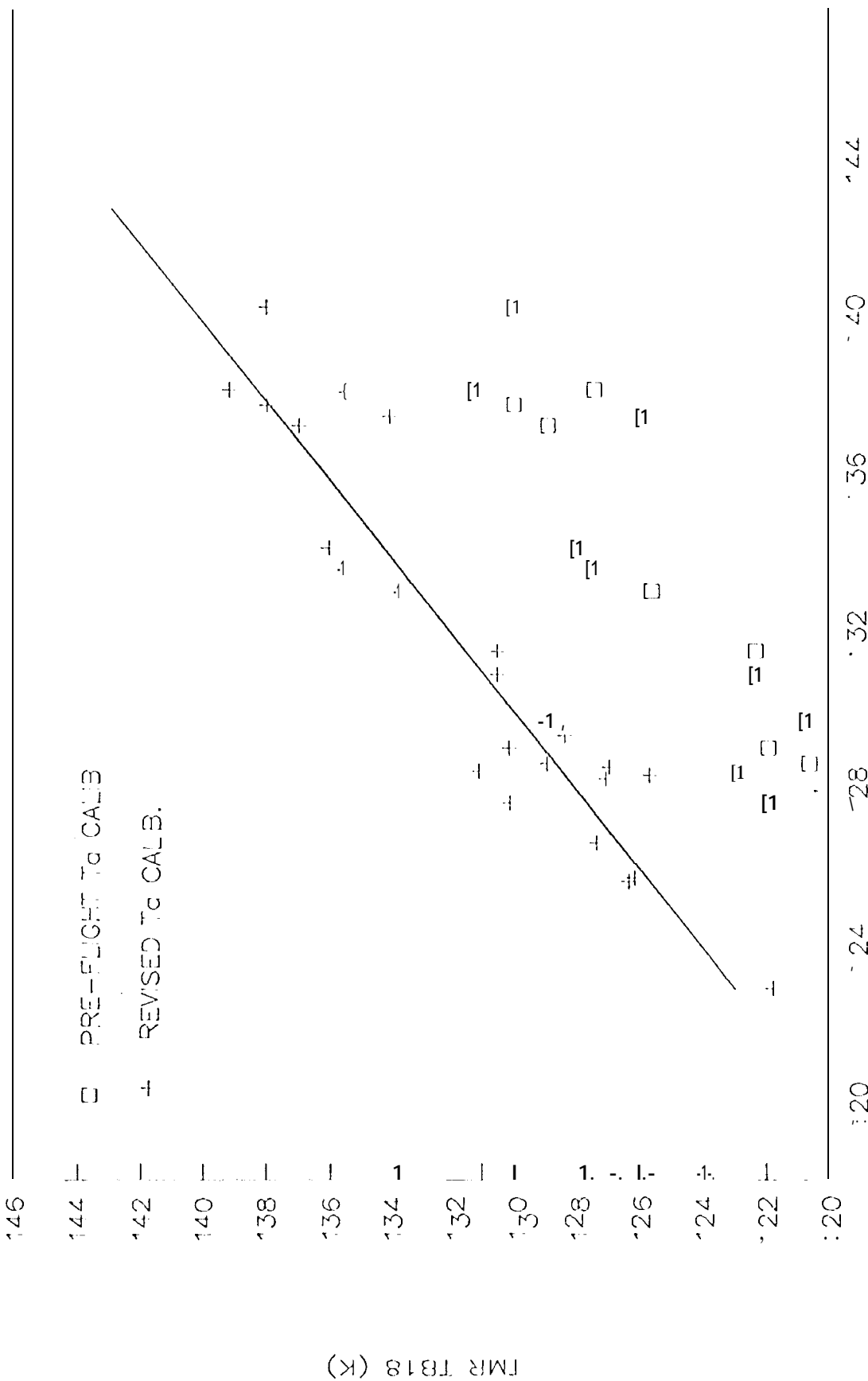
Figure 9. Same as Figure 7, but for the Norfolk and Chichi Jima overpass data. Only two of the four Chichi Jima overpasses are included due to the occurrence of rain during two of the overpasses.

TWR TB18 VS GROUND WVR PREDICTED TB18

CLEAR, CALM DATA ONLY

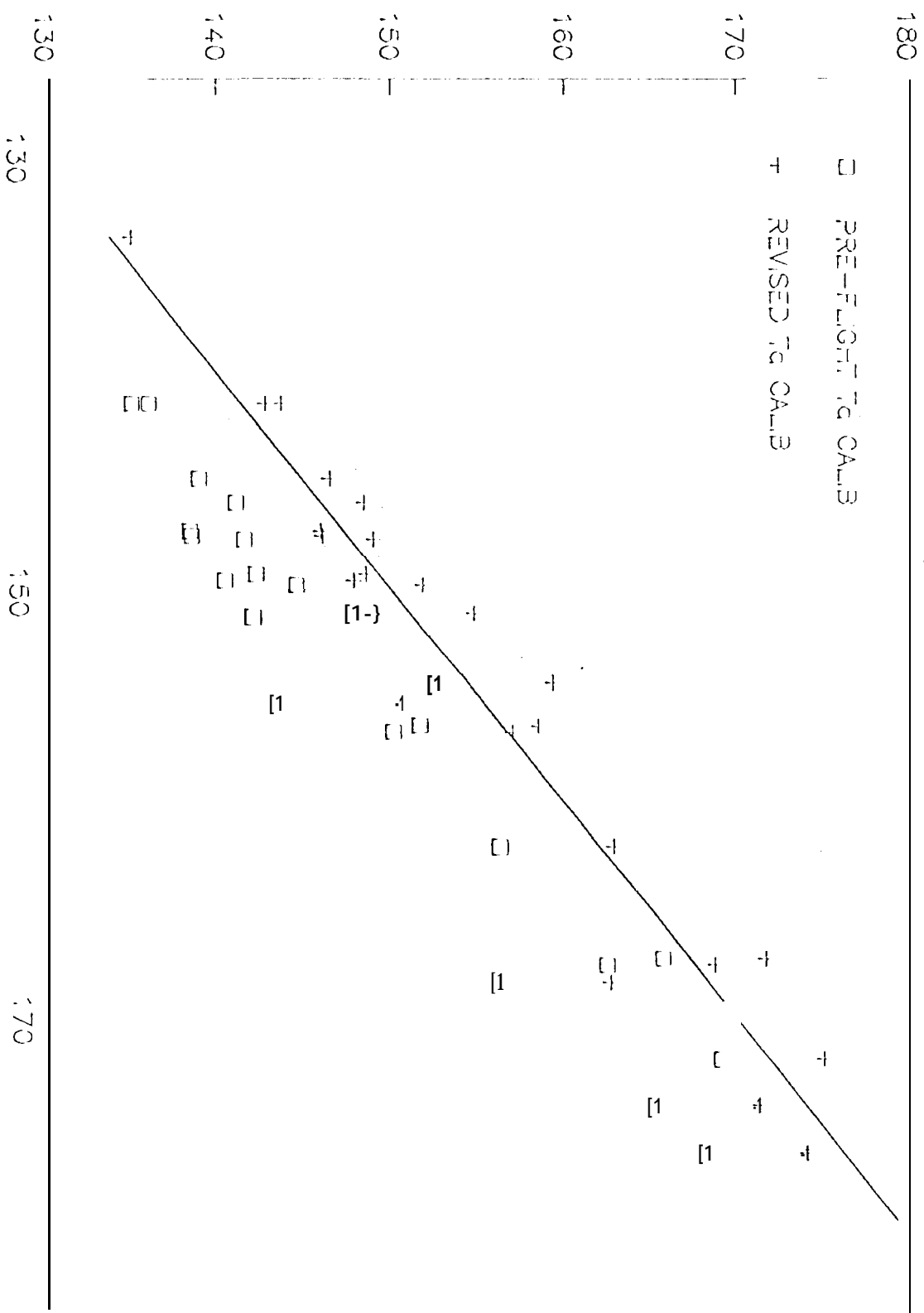
□ PRE-FLIGHT To CALB

+ REVISED To CALB.



TWR TB21 VS GROUND WVR PREDICTED TB21

CLEAR, CALM DATA ONLY

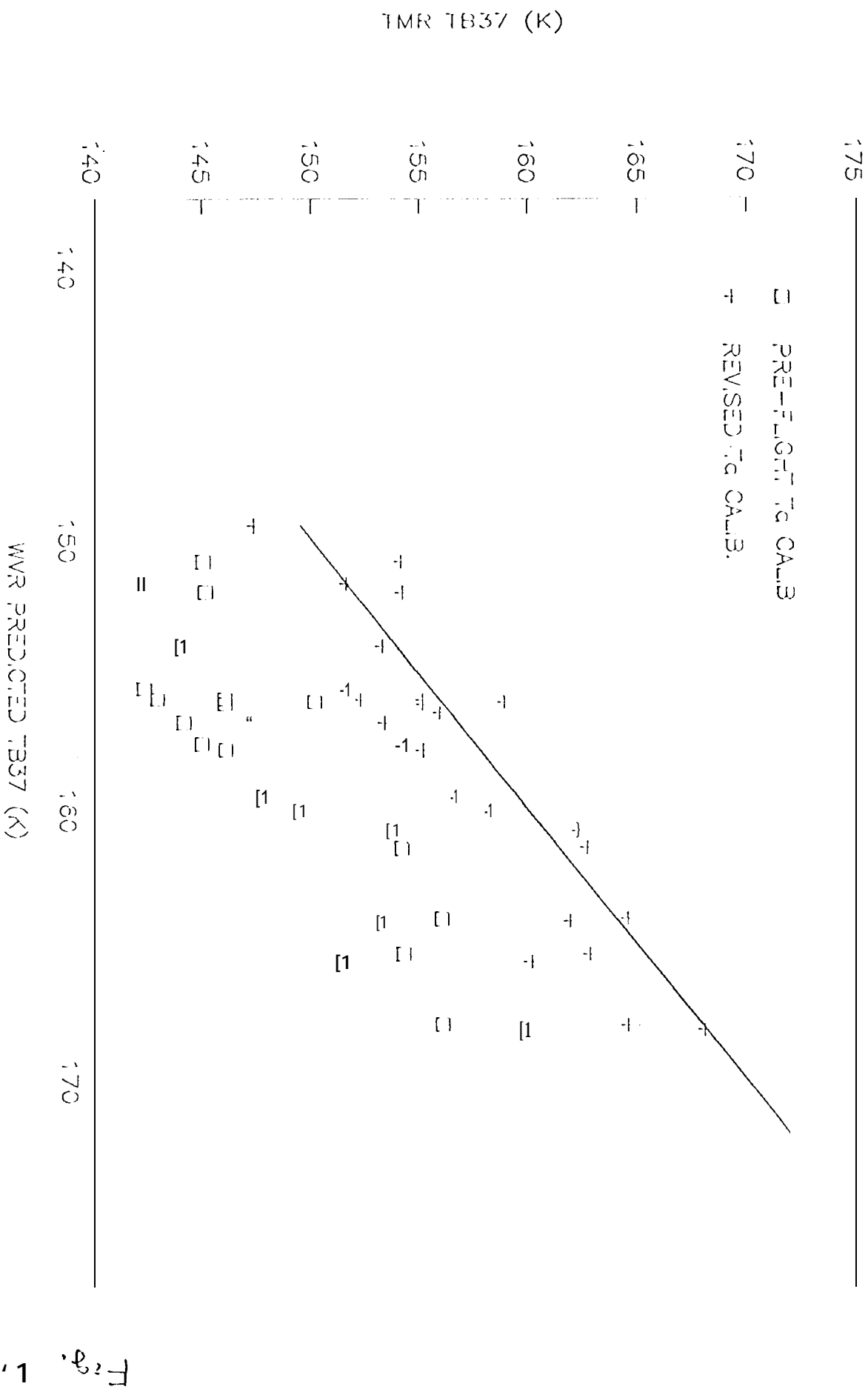


TWR TB21 (K)

GROUND WVR PREDICTED TB21 (K)

TMR TB37 VE GROUND WVR PREDICTED TB37

CLEAR, CALM DATA ONLY



150

NO LAND CORRECTION

134

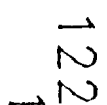
152

NO

120

126

124



122

123

124

125

126

127

128

121

15

51

15

Fig. 7a

WVR PREDICTED TB18 (K)

HARVEST: TMR VS WVR-PREDICTED TB21 CLEAR, CALM DATA THROUGH CYCLE 40

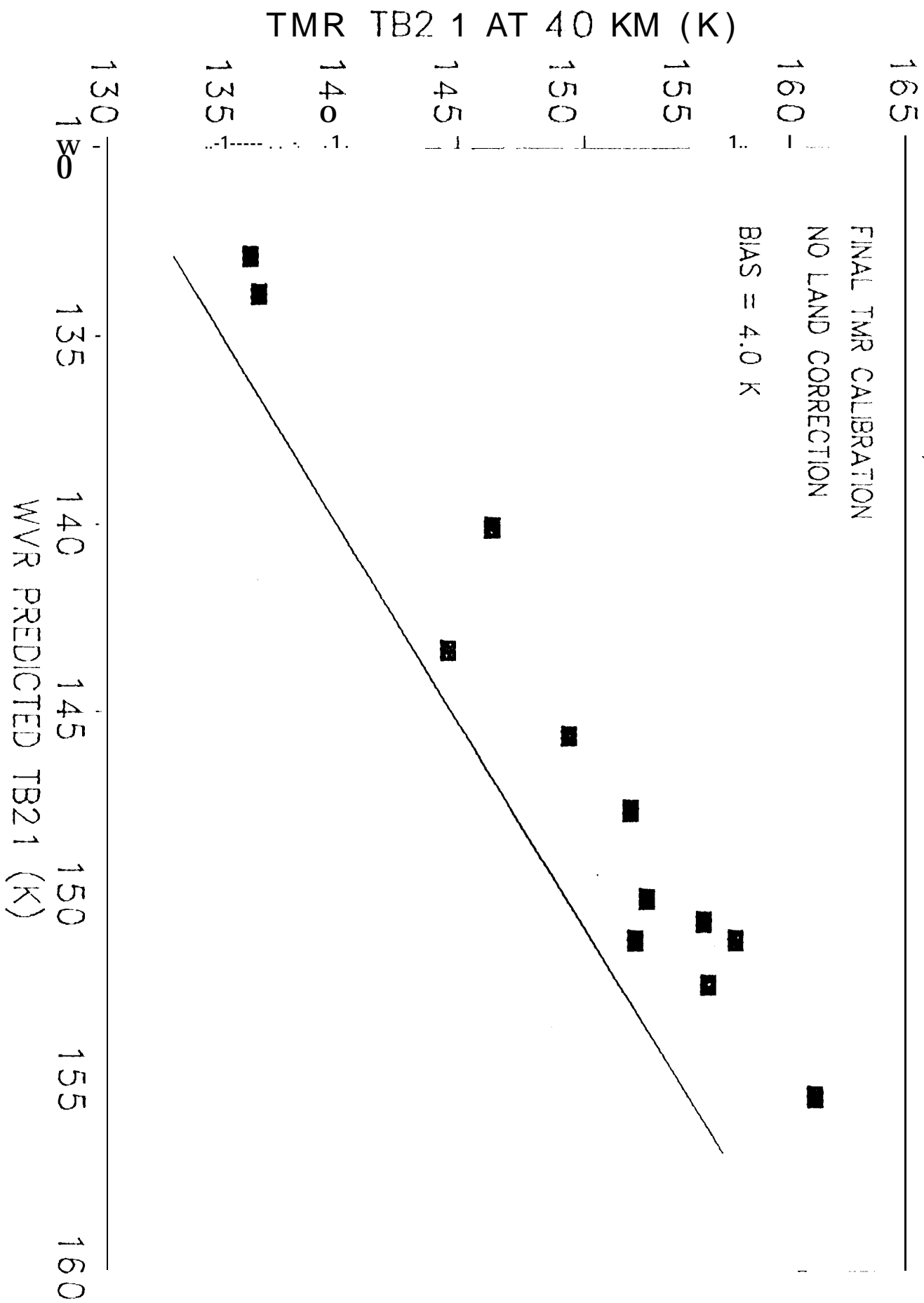
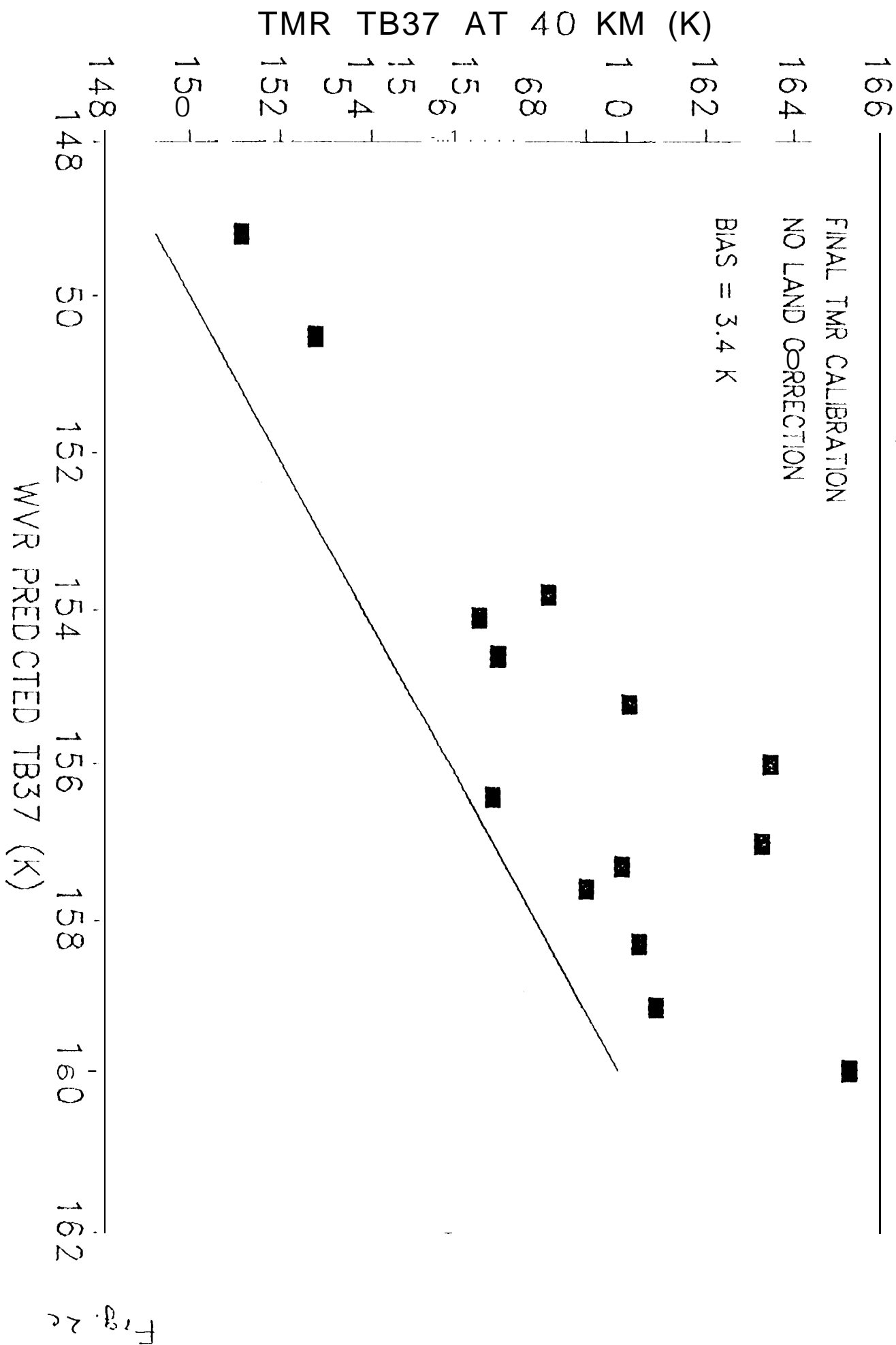


Fig. 26

HARVEST TMR VS WVR-PREDICTED TB37 CLEAR, CALM DATA THROUGH CYCLE 40



LAMPEDUSA TMR VS WVR-PREDICTED TB18 CLEAR, CALM DATA THROUGH CYCLE 40

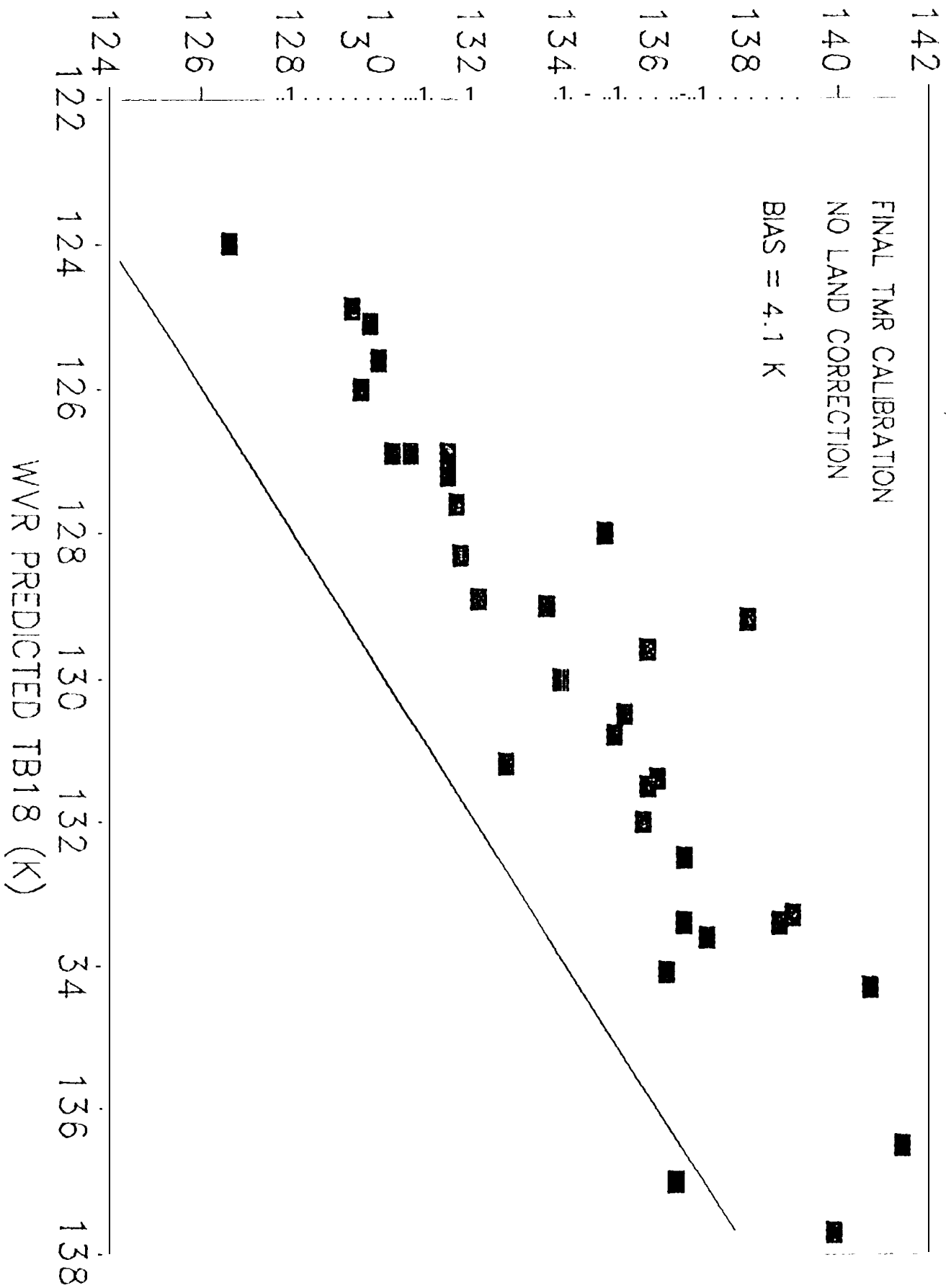
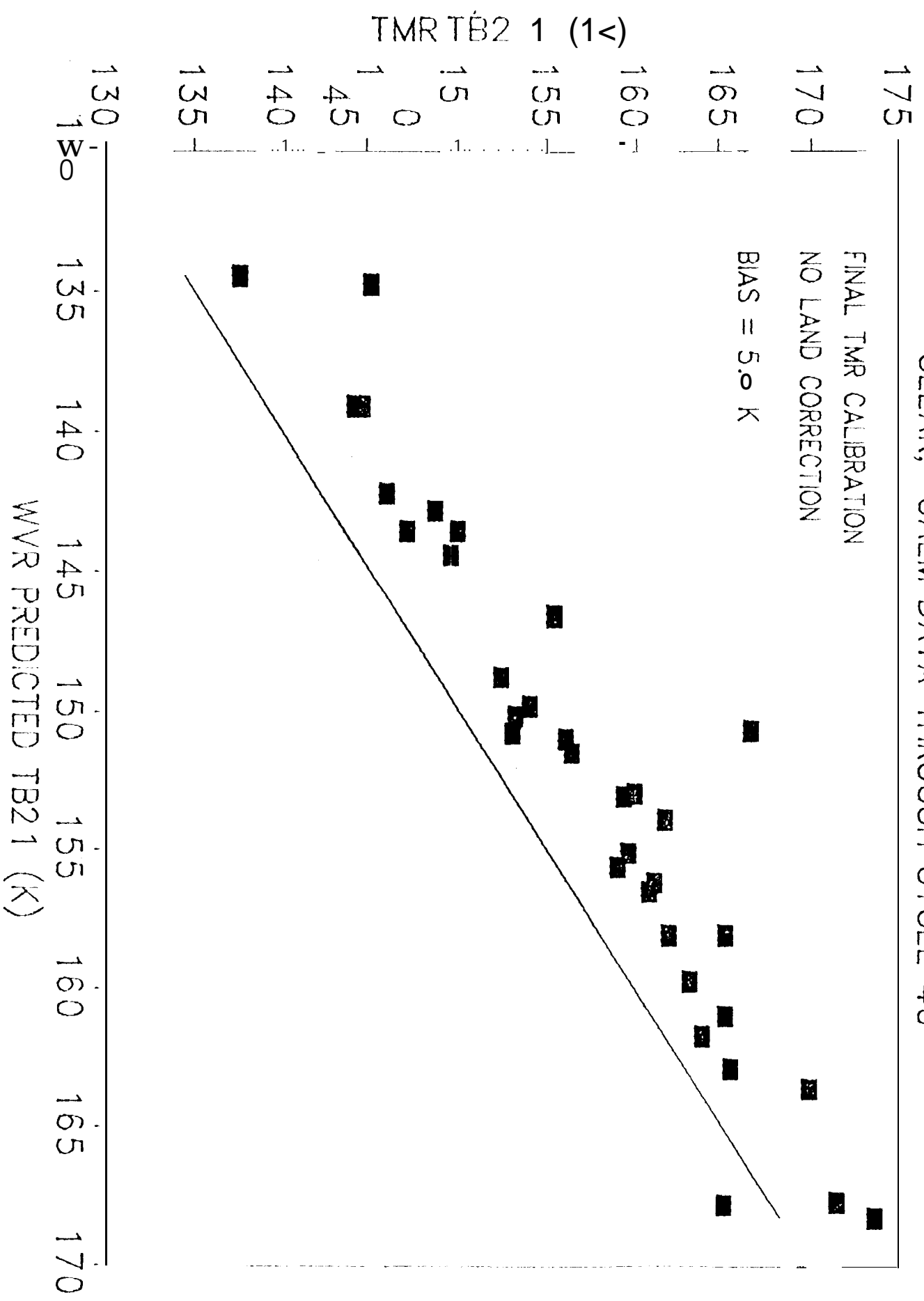
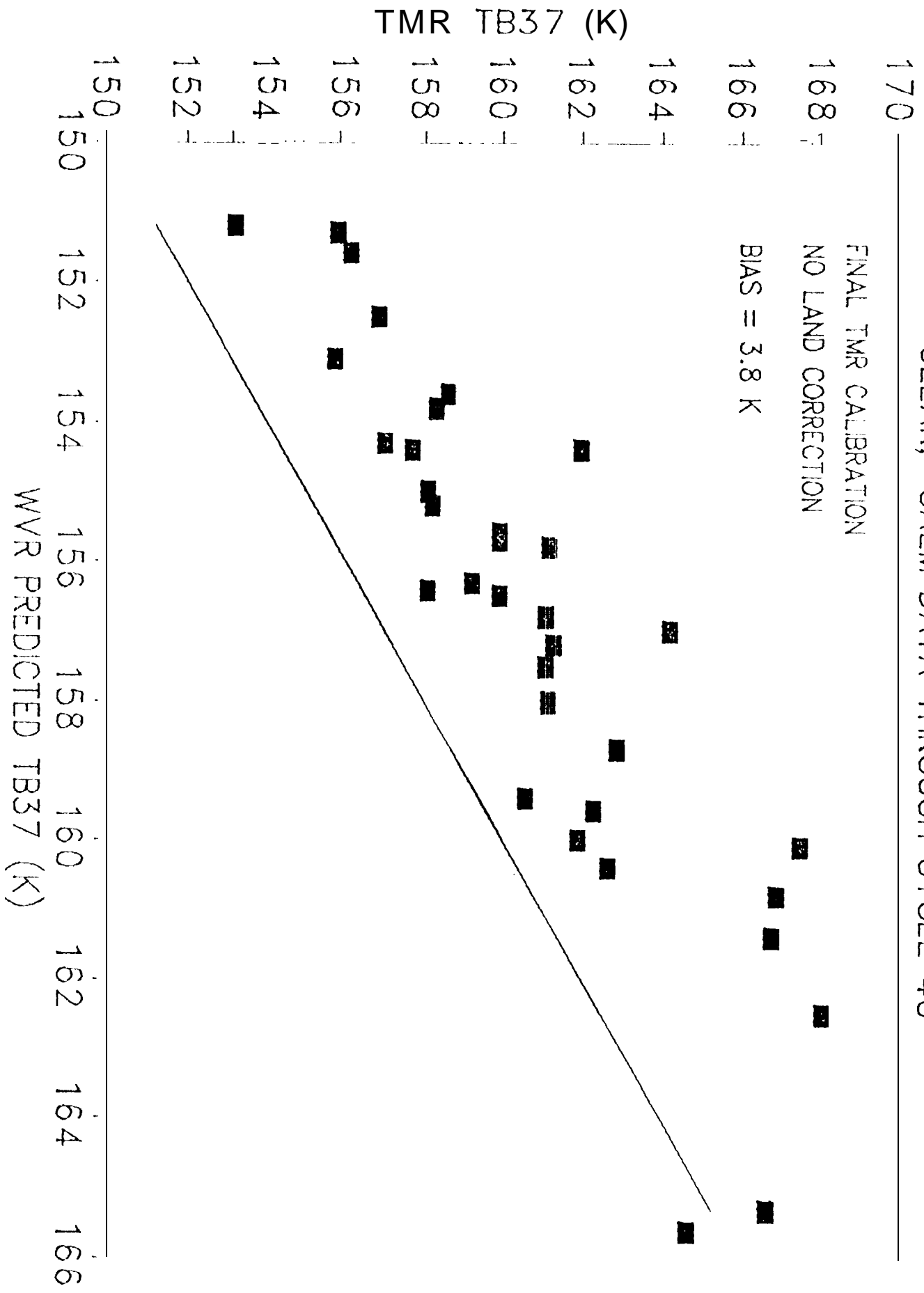


Fig. 2

LAMPEDUSA TMR VS WVR-PREDICTED TB21 CLEAR, CALM DATA THROUGH CYCLE 40



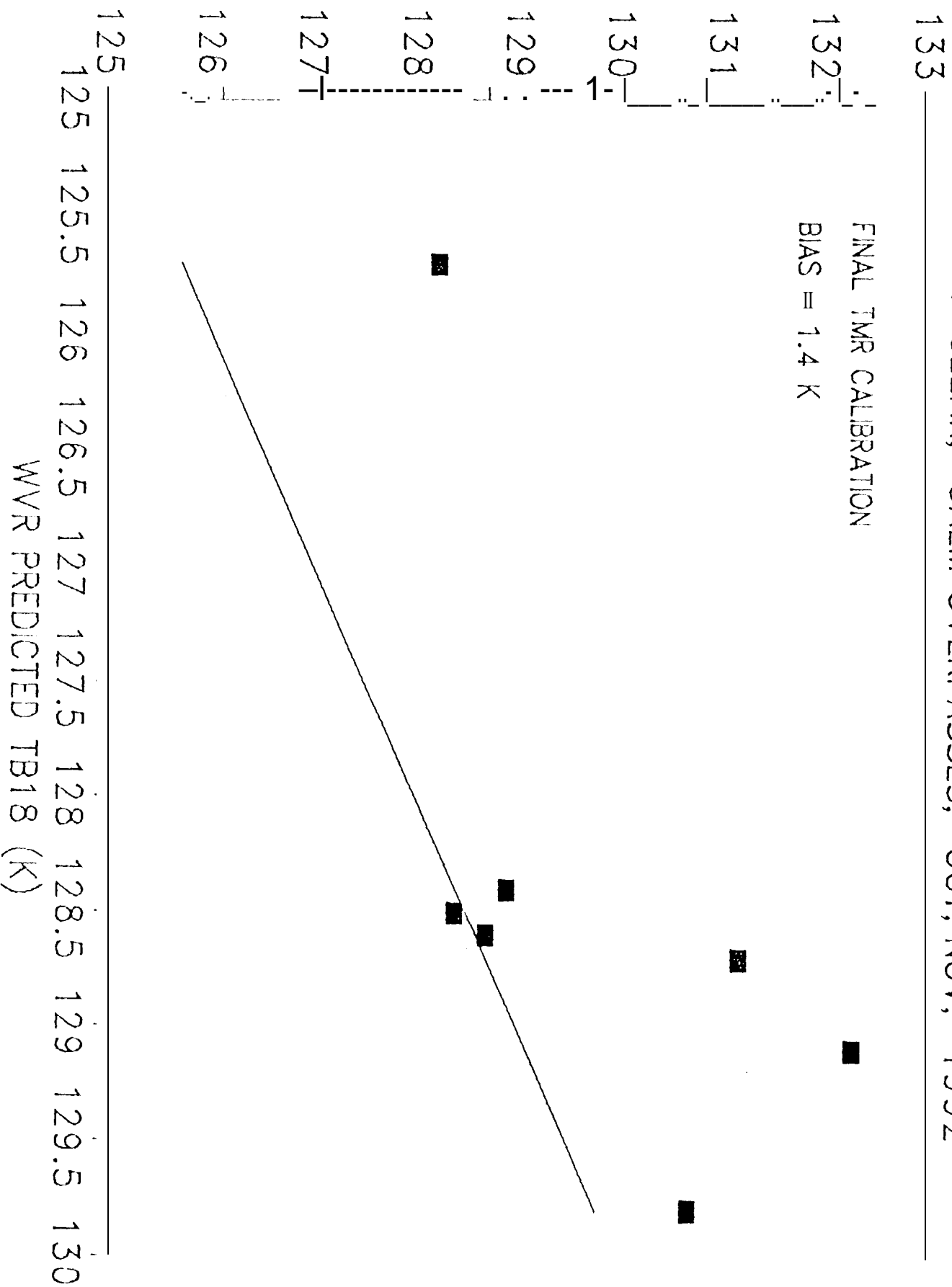
LAMPEDUSA TMR VS WVR--PREDICTED TB37 CLEAR, CALM DATA THROUGH CYCLE 40



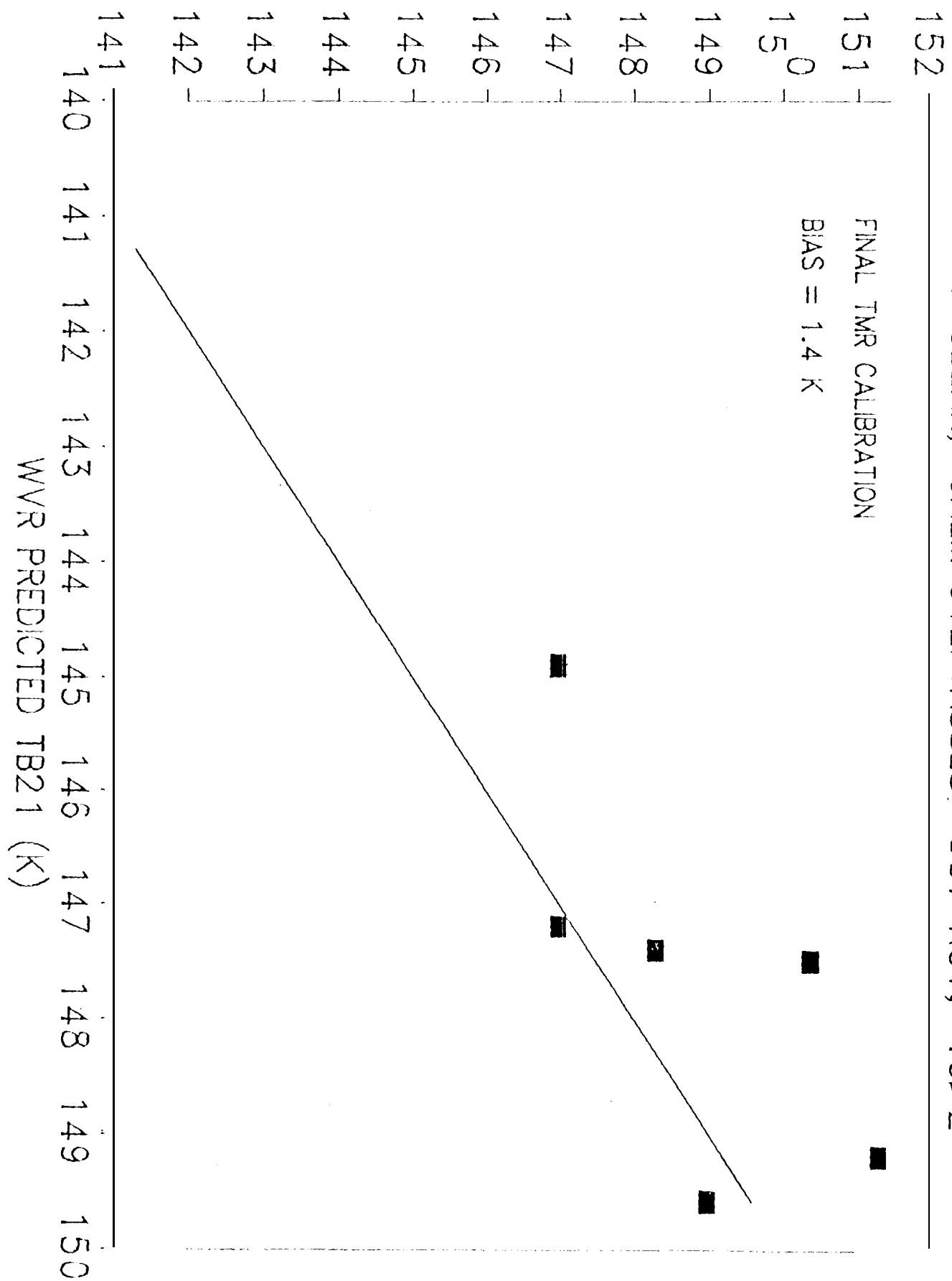
NORFOLK TMR VS WVR-PREDICTED TB18 7 CLEAR, CALM OVERPASSES, OCT, NOV, 1992

FINAL TMR CALIBRATION

BIAS = 1.4 K



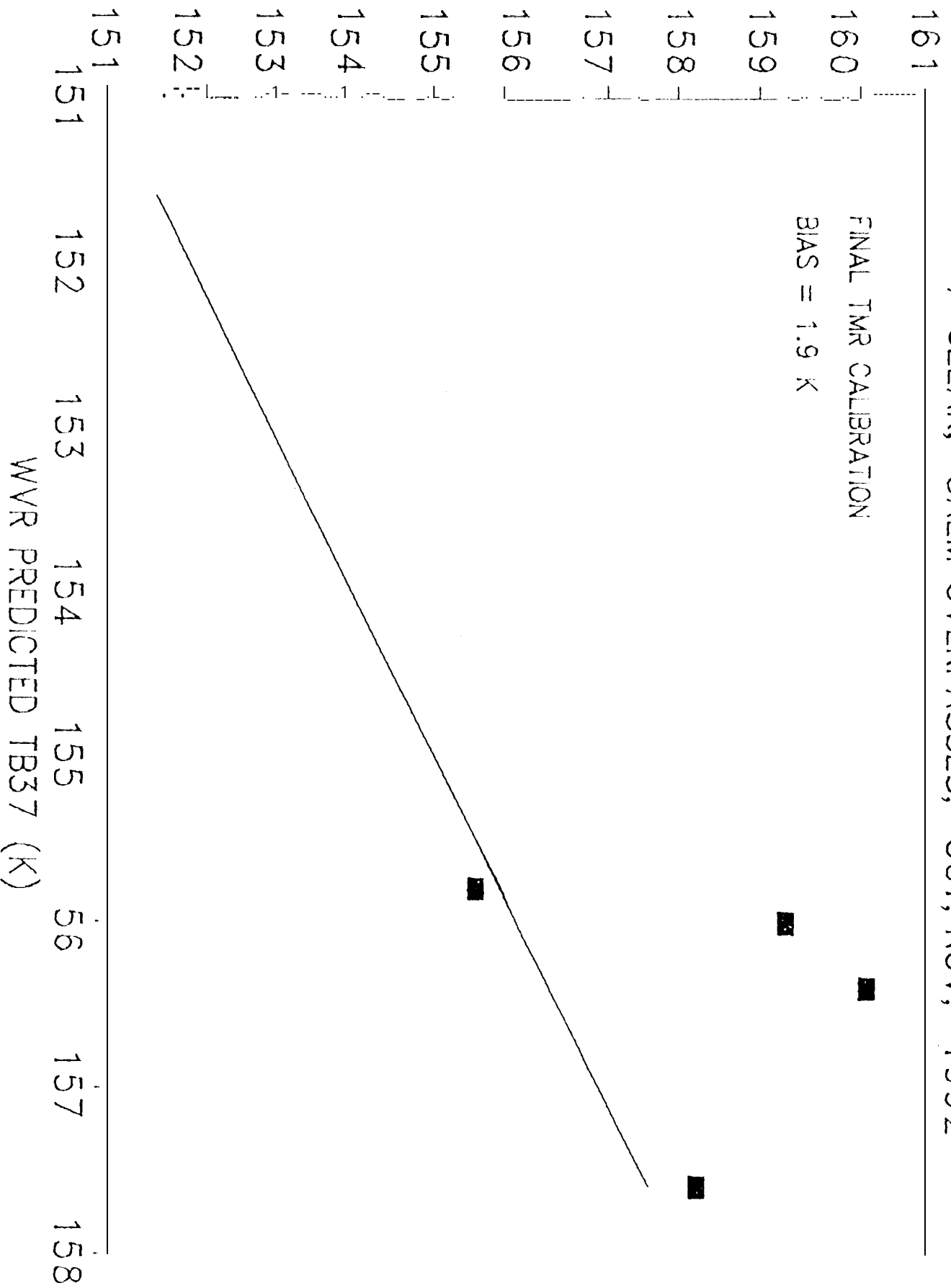
NORFOLK TMR VS WVR-PREDICTED TB21 7 CLEAR, CALM OVERPASSES. OCT NOV, 1982



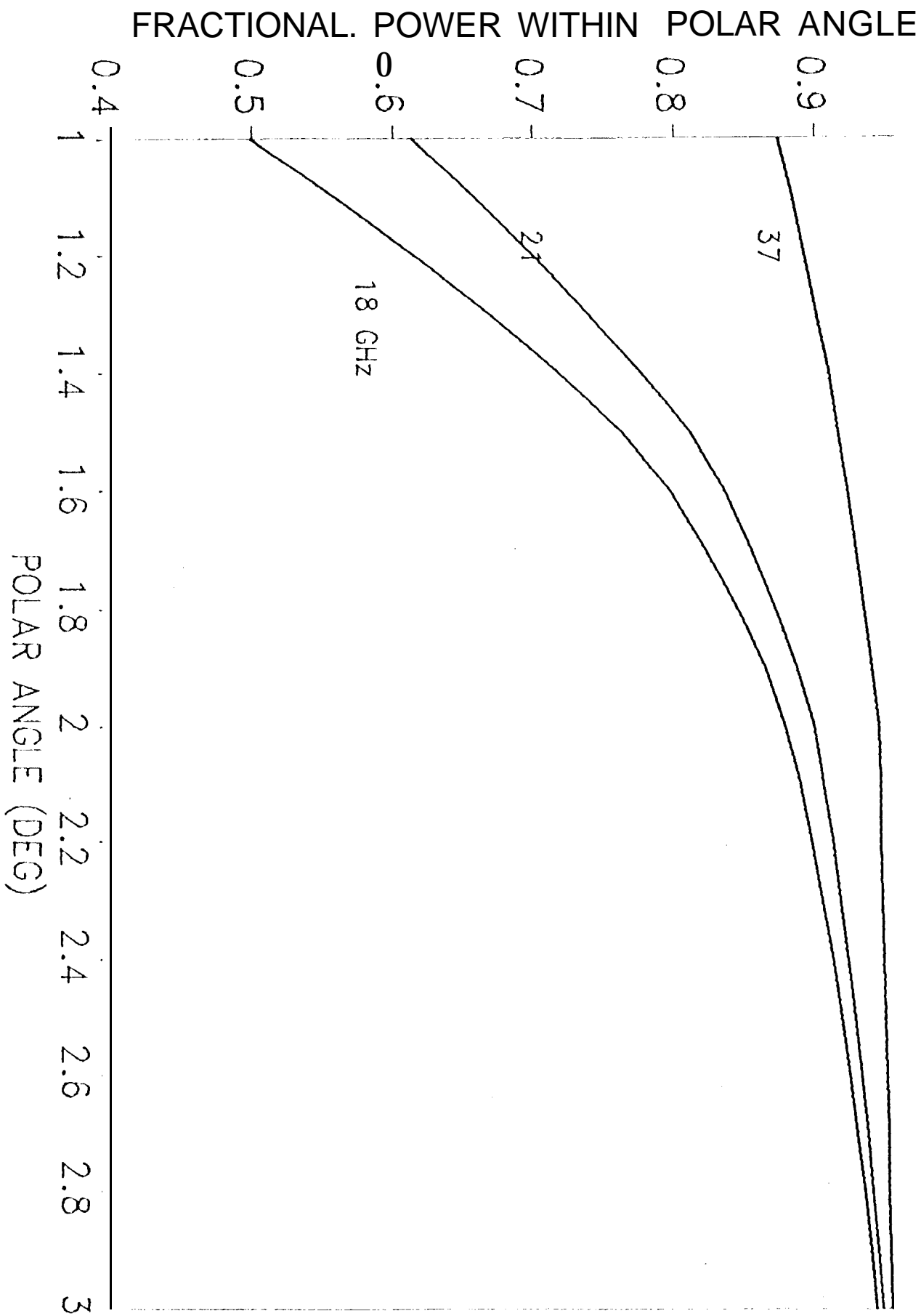
NORFOLK TMR VS WVR-PREDICTED TB37 7 CLEAR, CALM OVERPASSES, OCT, NOV, 1992

FINAL TMR CALIBRATION

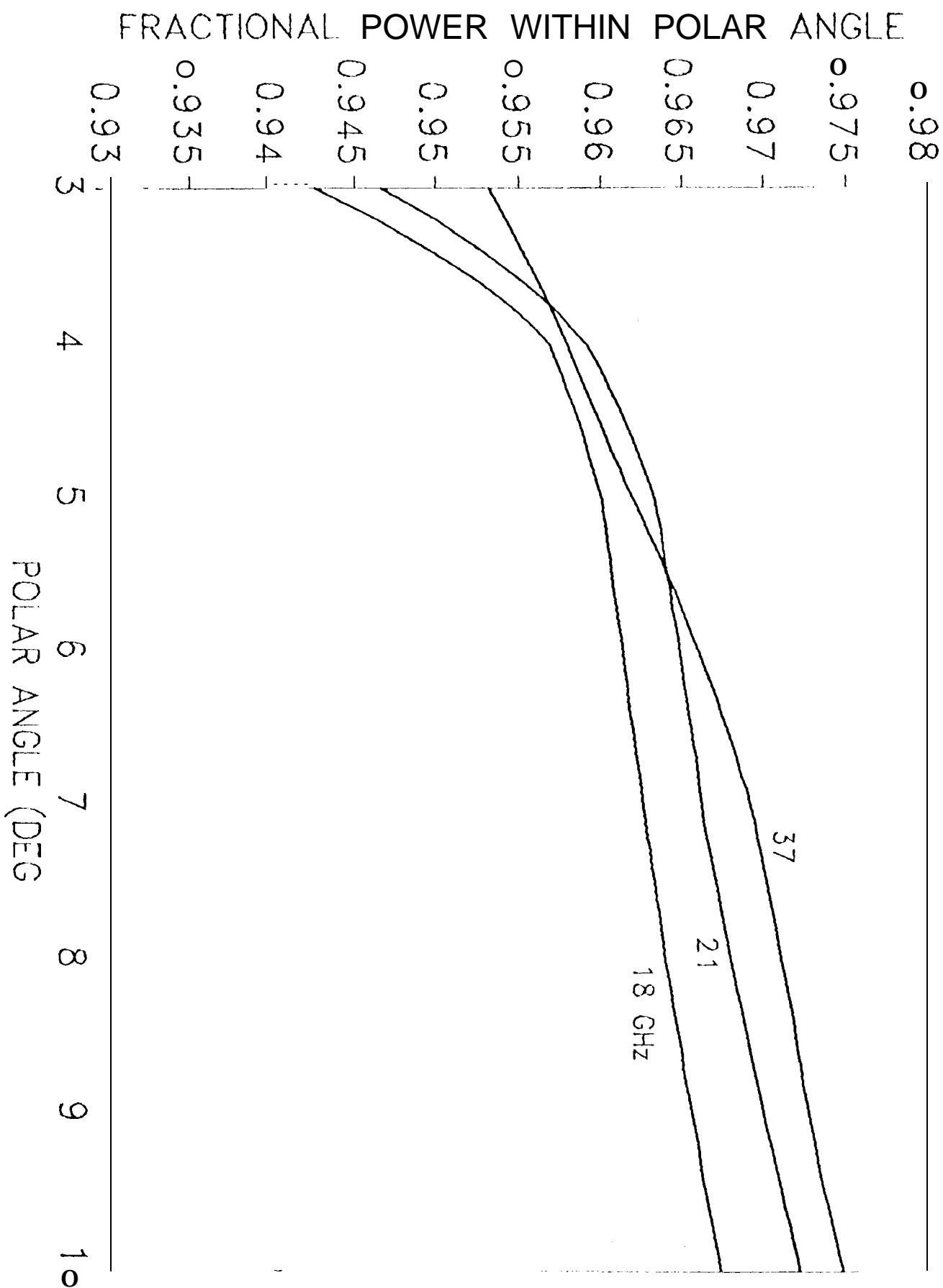
BIAS = 1.9 K



TM_R CUMULATIVE BEAM POWER (1-3 DEG)



TMR CUMULATIVE BEAM POWER (3-10 DEG)



TMR LAND FRACTIONS VS. POLAR ANGLE
HARVEST LAMPEDUSA VERIFICATION SITES

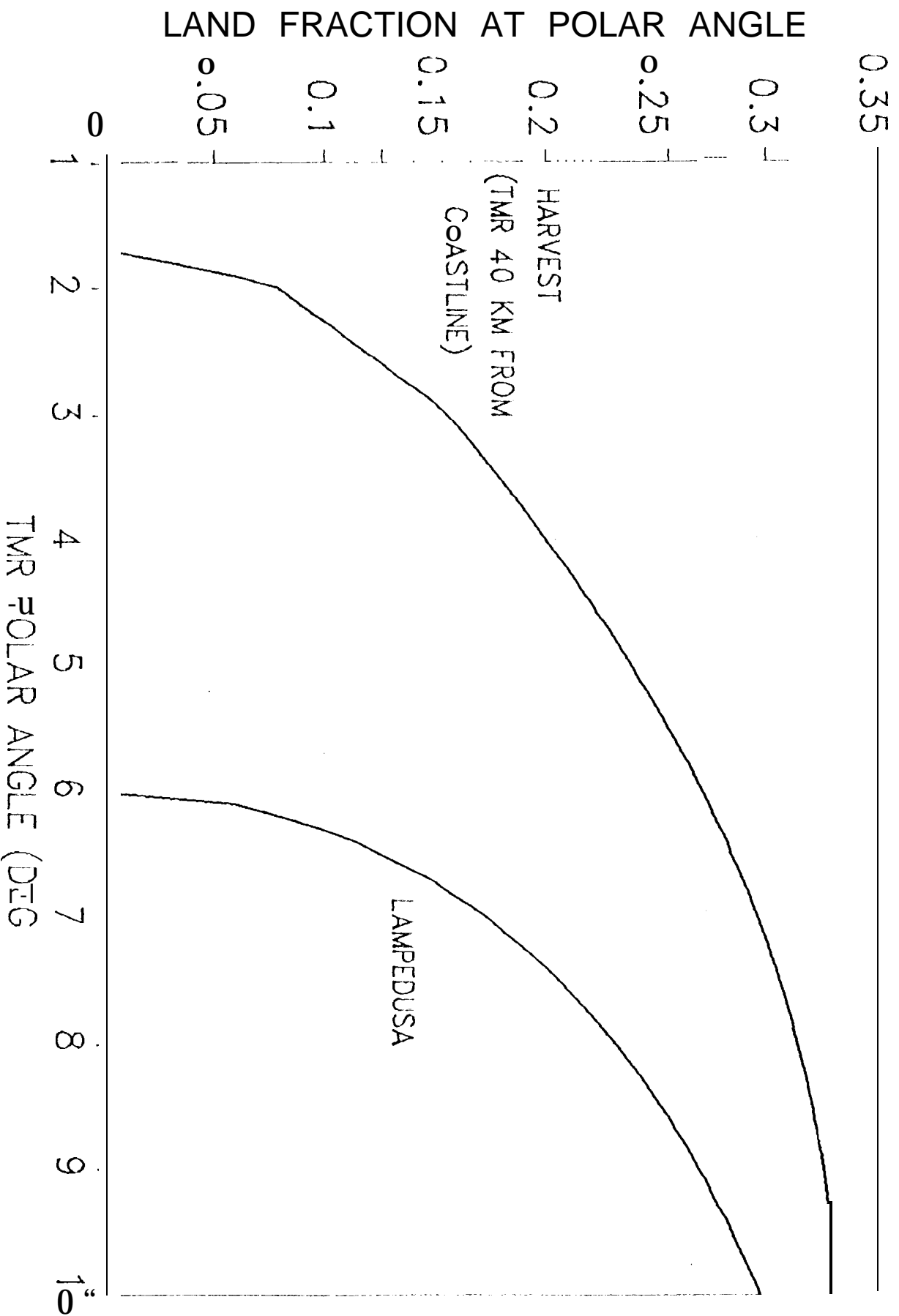


Fig. 66

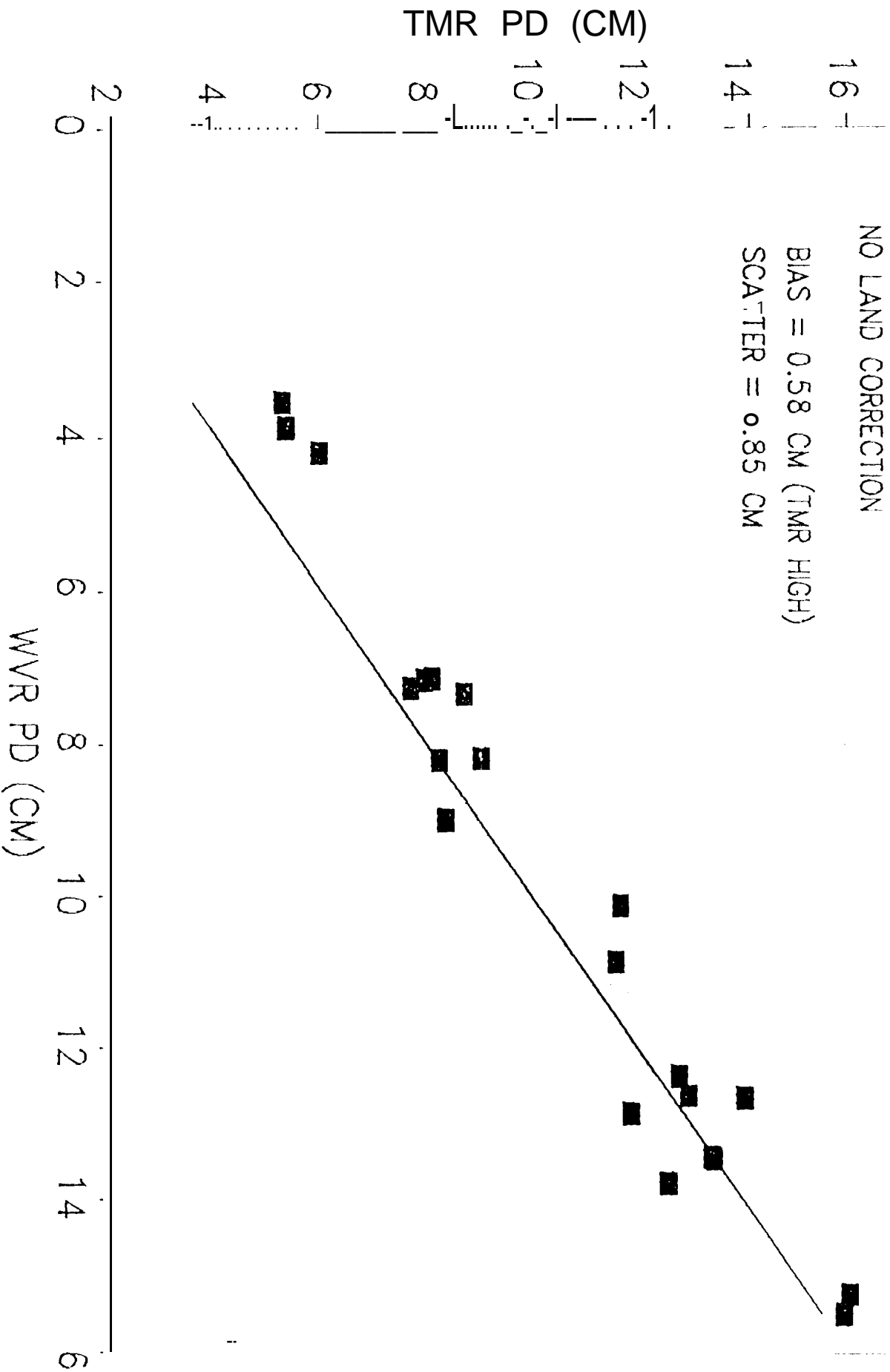
HARVEST TMR VS WVR PD COMPARISONS THROUGH CYCLE 40. MINUS TWO OUTLIERS

8

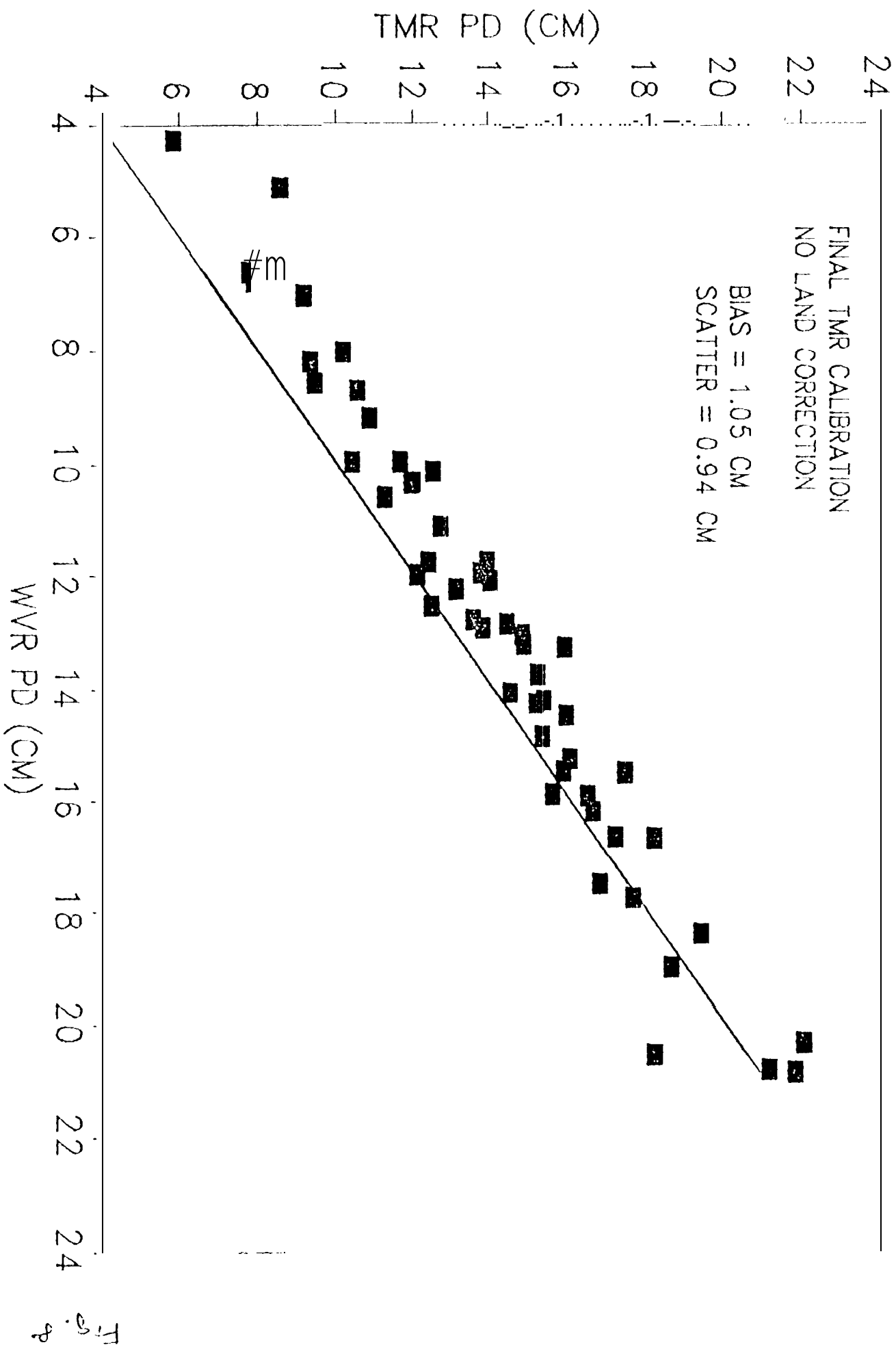
FINAL TMR CALIBRATION
NO LAND CORRECTION

BIAS = 0.58 CM (TMR HIGH)

SCATTER = 0.85 CM



LAMPEDUSA TMR VS WVR PD COMPARISONS THROUGH CYCLE 40, ALL DATA



CHICHI JIMA, NORFOLK TMR-WVR PD COMPARE 10 OVERPASSES, SEP NOV., 1992

FINAL TMR CALIBRATION

BIAS = 0.12 CM (TMR HIGH)

SCATTER = 0.83 CM

